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ABSTRACT

This volume is a collection of eight short articles that address fundamental issues of staff development in programs for young children. Part I covers supervisory principles and techniques, indicates environmental areas in which child care personnel have not been prepared to intervene effectively (Bronfenbrenner's exo and macro system levels), provides guides to speech and action in supervision and outlines a developmental model for personal and professional growth. Part II indicates the variety of educational programs for child care personnel and discusses sponsorship, program content, current trends and future perspectives, competency-based training and certification. A six-step model of a humanized systems approach to teacher performance evaluation is diagrammed and elaborated. Two models of organizational structure (classical and participative) are presented along with two checklists for assessing the organizational features of programs. Part III explores the problems of stress and teacher burn-out in child care programs and provides suggestions for facilitating stress resistance and recovery. The impact of budgetary concerns on staff morale and development is discussed. (Author/RH)

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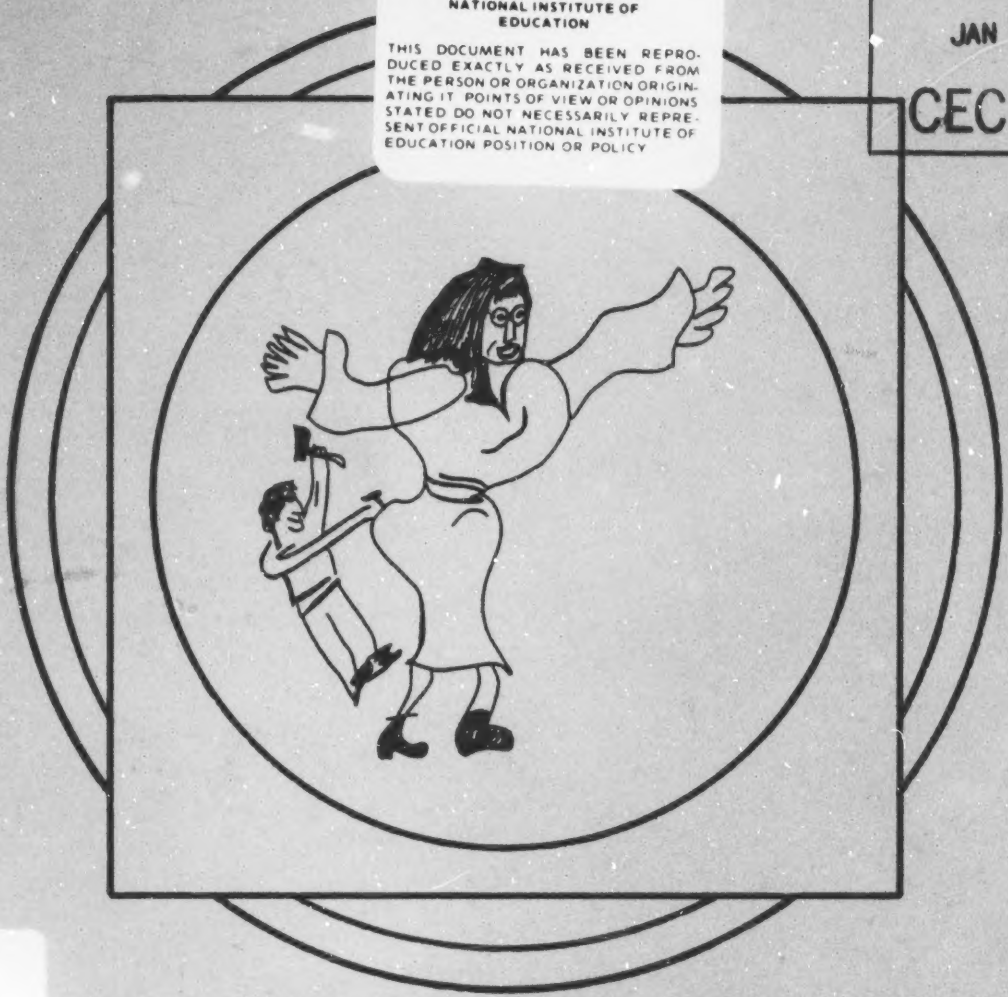

CHILDREN IN CONTEMPORARY SOCIETY

Theme: Staff Development in Programs for Young Children

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Cover Drawing

One of the most important things that teachers learn in staff development is that children have feelings, lots of feelings, that are often strong and not always desirable. Angry feelings are probably the most difficult ones for children to deal with, especially if these feelings are directed toward those they care about, as is usually the case. It is interesting to discover the relation between "violence" and "vitality" which have the same Latin root (vis): "Violence is the life force turned in a negative and destructive direction; vitality is the life force channeled into constructive and creative forms." (Barron, Frank. Commentary for No war toys. Los Angeles: 1970.)

Parents, teachers and child care workers must show themselves willing to accept angry feelings from children. The eleven-year-old boy who did the cover drawing, "Jerky Teacher", could not have drawn and shown the workshop leader his humorous attack unless the adult had already acknowledged such impulses in the child and had accepted such wishes in himself.

This is not to suggest that teachers must go through therapy or act as therapist in the classroom. But the teacher who knows his own feelings will best be able to accept and nurture the child; the teacher who empathizes with strong feelings is being "therapeutic" in the broadest sense of the word. Further, what the teacher does best is to strengthen the child's ability to be the master of such feelings, rather than the victim.

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The policy of this journal is to study various contemporary educational, social, medical, political, and economic issues which directly or indirectly influence the lives of young children. Each publication is organized around a specific issue and includes a collection of interdisciplinary readings which relate to the selected topic.

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A Tribute to
Dr. Lilian G. Katz

Professor of Early Childhood Education, University of Illinois For Her Outstanding Contributions to the Field of Staff Development.

Lilian Gonshaw Katz is highlighted in this issue of *Children in Contemporary Society* for her outstanding achievements in training and professional development of early childhood educators. Currently a professor of early childhood education at the University of Illinois, Dr. Katz also serves as the Director of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Early Childhood Education and is the editor of *Current Topics in Early Childhood Education.* Her recent book, *Talks with teachers: Reflections on early childhood education,* and many of her articles – including "Challenges to early childhood educators" and Teachers in preschools: Problems and prospects" – graphically address the individual needs of preschool teachers. (Further publications by Dr. Katz are found on page 27).

Born in London, Dr. Katz immigrated to the United States during adolescence. The mother of three children, she participated for five years in a parent cooperative nursery school in the San Francisco area. She obtained her doctorate in education from Stanford University in 1968, joining the faculty of the University of Illinois the same year. Dr. Katz has served on numerous national and international committees for young children, and in 1975-76 was visiting professor in England at St. Mary's College and in Sydney, Australia at Macquarie University

"My recent work has been focused on the nature and nurture of teachers of young children. I think it is a useful general proposition that we cannot have optimum environments for children in centers and classrooms unless we also have optimum environments for their teachers and caretakers. Surely there are some days when the welfare of children is at the expense of the adults' and vice versa. But in the long haul, both groups have to find their experiences satisfying if the environment is going to be a healthy one. Similarly, I think the case can be made that teachers and caregivers tend to treat children very much the way they are treated, even though many teachers rise above being poorly treated, and some fall below good leadership. But on the average, where one sees really good things happening between adults and children, similar good things will mark the relationships between the teachers or caregivers and the people they report to. These points are a small sampling of a larger set of questions about how we might develop defensible, if not optimal, working conditions for those who work with very young dependent children daily."

Principles of Staff Development in Programs for Younger Children

BY LILIAN G. KATZ

Teachers* and other professionals working with children have to face the fact that they cannot offer all the possible activities that might be instructive. In a given teaching situation there are probably a dozen – or maybe 50 – good ways to respond, and probably as many or more bad ways. Choices have to be made, and obviously many factors affect those choices. Some of the teaching activities chosen by in-service educators are selected because of tradition, e.g., "We have art workshops every Spring"; because of efficiency, e.g., a single speaker presenting information to a large group; because in-service educators think teachers either want them or will attend them; because these activities fit the resources available; or because of particular philosophical commitments. The six principles outlined below are recommended for in-service educators and others engaged in staff development. They are offered in the hope that they may be useful in deciding how to respond to teachers and what activities to select. These principles and techniques are also intended to highlight particular aspects of the behavior and personal development of teachers which seem to have become under-emphasized since the competency or performance-based training movement has gained so much momentum.

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Principle 1: Focus on the teacher's understanding of the situation at hand. The term understanding is used here to refer to the teacher's concepts relevant to her work. They will include a wide range of presuppositions about such things as how children learn, what "works," the teacher's effect on her** pupils, what she expects of herself, and what others expect of her.

It is probable that of all the potential courses of action available to in-service educators, those which modify the teachers' concepts are the most enduring and useful in the long run. The focus of such activities would be to help teachers develop understanding that is more appropriate, more accurate, deeper and more finely differentiated than previously. (see Katz, 1977). The focus on understanding helps the teacher to strengthen her own attributes and generates new behavior more effectively than prescriptions and directives would. The presupposition of course is that an in-service educator is someone who has more appropriate or accurate understanding than the teacher being helped

* To simplify phrasing, the term **teacher** will be used henceforth to include other professionals working with children.

** The feminine gender is used to simplify sentence construction, not to negate the welcome presence of male teachers in early childhood education.

which legitimizes her authority to provide advice.

Principle 2: Focus on strengthening enduring dispositions. Widespread enthusiasm for performance-based and competency-based teacher education risks ignoring development of the teachers' dispositions. By dispositions I mean relatively stable habits of mind, tendencies to respond to one's experiences in certain ways. In making choices as to which types of activities to provide, it is best to focus on those which are likely to strengthen dispositions thought to be related to effective teaching, and to weaken those which might undermine effective teaching. Some examples of dispositions to be encouraged are inventiveness or resourcefulness, patience (i.e., long reaction time), friendliness, and enthusiasm. Some dispositions likely to undermine effective teaching include the tendencies to be impetuous, unfriendly, or hypercritical.

Two suppositions provide the rationale for this principle. First, since we cannot teach all the knowledge and skills which are of potential use to teachers, it seems advisable to teach so as to strengthen their dispositions to go on learning, to be resourceful, and to be inventive long after our work with them is over. Secondly, while it is important to help teachers with specific skills and methods, it is important to do so without undermining their ability to be independent and resourceful.

Principle 3: Focus on competencies already acquired. In our eagerness to effect change we often overlook the possibility that the teachers we work with may already have the competencies appropriate for a given situation. In such cases the focus should be on helping the teachers to use already available competencies more reliably, consistently, or confidently. For example, a teacher may be sufficiently competent at guiding a discussion with her kindergarteners, but may fluctuate excessively. In such cases, teachers probably do not require modules on discussion skills, but rather fuller understanding of the causes of their own variability which makes them perform in ways that—as the saying goes—they "know better" than to do! The teacher then might refrain from leading discussions except when classroom conditions are optimum for her, thus mastering her skills before trying them out under less than optimum conditions.

Similarly, teachers of young children are often exhorted to "listen" to them. It is reasonable to assume that all teachers have such "listening" competence, but they may apply listening skills inappropriately and/or inconsistently. In yet another case, a teacher may have the skills required of a situation, but fail to use them with sufficient confidence to be effective. For example, in cases of setting limits, redirecting or stopping disruptive behavior, if the teacher's actions betray a lack of confidence, children may receive mixed signals, challenge her and thus exacerbate the situation. In such cases the in-service educator's role should focus on "shaping" and supporting the teacher's efforts to strengthen already available behaviors, rather than on the acquisition of new competencies.

Principle 4: Focus on building long-term relationships. This principle refers to those situations in which an observation of a teacher prompts us to offer "corrections". Sometimes, in our eagerness to be helpful and to establish our credibility, we are too hasty. Though we may be "right", we may lose the opportunity to go on helping that teacher over a longer period of time. In other words, we have to choose between being direct at a given moment, (thereby jeopardizing the development of a deeper relationship) and withholding the correction for the sake of future learning. The choice should focus upon those responses - including abstaining from responding - which will strengthen the development of a relationship of mutual confidence and respect

that the teacher can draw upon in the future when the teacher can draw on a stable and reliable source for corrections over a long period of development.

Principle 5: Focus on maintaining an optimum distance between yourself and the teacher. Many educators consider warmth and supportiveness essential attributes in their relationships with teachers. Research seems to support the contention that **warmth**, for example, is significantly related to teacher effectiveness. However, in-service educators may be tempted to be too close to their teachers. It is recommended that we strive for an optimum (not maximum) distance between ourselves and the teachers we work with. Obviously some people can cope with a larger number of close relationships than others, and the optimum closeness also varies from one educator to another.

The rationale underlying this principle is four-fold. First, excessive closeness may limit our ability to evaluate the learner's progress realistically. We may be unable to help her confront serious weaknesses; indeed, we may fail to perceive the weakness at all. Secondly, if we become too close to the teacher we may unintentionally impinge on her right to privacy, a right which deserves protection. Thirdly, there is some danger that as we become too close to one of the teachers in a group we are responsible for, we may inadvertently make disparaging remarks about another member of the group and thereby undermine our own trustworthiness, credibility and effectiveness. Fourthly, if we allow ourselves to become too involved with our teachers, we may find ourselves "burned out" in a few months, and suffer not only personal stress, but also lose our effectiveness on the job.

Principle 6: Focus on providing moderate amounts of inspiration. Many of the teachers we are trying to help can cope admirably with the complex tasks and responsibilities they face. They may not require new techniques, packages, or gimmicks (although they may believe them necessary), but simply occasional renewal of courage to sustain their efforts and to maintain enough enthusiasm to keep going at an unglamourous and perhaps unappreciated job. Excessive sapping of courage or enthusiasm, at times approaching depression (i.e., believing one's efforts have no effect), is a potential cause of ineffectiveness no matter how many competencies the individual has. An in-service educator may be able to intervene by providing a modicum of inspiration as well as encouragement. It seems important that the inspiration be specific to the work setting rather than just a generalized message. In addition, it is suggested that supportive messages contain real and useful information about the significance of the teachers' efforts. Furthermore, it may be wise to provide such inspiration in moderate rather than maximum amounts so that teachers do not become "hooked" or dependent on it. This might undermine the strength of their dispositions toward self-help. As no in-service program can anticipate all of a teacher's future needs, the intent of these principles is to provide activities which focus on the long-term personal development of those who work with young children.

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Encouraging Personal and Professional Development of Child Care Practitioners

BY KAREN VANDERVAN

Workers in the field of child development and child care should be alert to the relationship between their own potential for personal and professional growth and their ability to achieve benefits for children. To not be so concerned, is, in fact, to jeopardize the effectiveness and quality of the child care field.

Fortunately, there is a current surge of interest in the study of adult development (Sheehy, 1976; Vaillant, 1977; Levinson, 1978), and a growing literature on the developmental characteristics of child care practitioners. Katz (1977) describes developmental stages of early childhood teachers as they progress in their teaching activities, relating these to associated developmental tasks and training needs. A paradigm of personal and professional development of child care practitioners has been proposed by VanderVen (1977, 1978). The paradigm encompasses various kinds of direct line work with children, such as work with children in groups, and modes of "indirect" work with children, such as supervision, administration, and research.

The importance of encouraging personal and professional growth in child care practitioners is indicated by the increasing recognition of the ecological approach to child development. Urie Bronfenbrenner's seminal article "Toward an Experimental Ecology of Human Development" (1977) articulates the premise that the influences on children are not only embedded in their immediate surroundings, including their families, but also are derived from an expanding hierarchy of settings ranging from the neighborhood and its institutions to the broadest cultural patterns. Thus, to improve children's prospects constructively and incisively, practitioners must be aware of these multiple levels of influence and realize that, while to focus on one of them for a limited period of time can have a positive effect, the most potent interventions will also encompass the other areas of environmental influences. As Ira Gordon says, " . . . to talk about the child's ecology, you cannot talk about one little unit; you've got to deal with the whole 'sphere'." (1978, p. 96.)

If, then, practitioners are needed with the skills necessary to work at the various levels of the children's environment, what are these levels, what are the skills required at each stage, and what are ways of encouraging practitioners' development so as to acquire these skills?

Microsystem Skills

In Bronfenbrenner's system, the microsystem encompasses the interaction between the child and his environment in an immediate setting. The child care practitioner serving the child's microsystem is the person "on the line" —the child care worker, the caregiver, the

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teacher—who directly interacts with the child in his life space. Obviously this is a crucial and pivotal role. Thus, sensitivity, skills in observation, personal interaction, communication, and ability to structure the immediate physical setting to meet the children's needs are among the attributes of the effective worker in the microsystem.

Mesosystem Skills

The mesosystem consists of those institutions in the child's immediate neighborhood with which he has intimate contact. Thus, teachers, youth workers, child care workers and similar practitioners who interact with children in these settings might be considered mesosystem workers. Here, the focus is still directly on the child and a setting which directly affects him. Thus, microsystem skills are still necessary. However, at this point, workers need to collaborate with other adults who are part of the system in order to maximize its effectiveness.

Exosystem Skills

Work settings, including child care agencies, the school system, mass media and similar institutions in a community, comprise the exosystem. In order for the child care system to be influenced at the exosystem level, workers must be able to have an impact on these larger systems. These are persons who have skills in the first level of indirect work with children: the supervisors in schools and agencies who work to develop and improve the performance of direct line practitioners; the administrators who evolve a working climate which enhances the productivity of the supervisors and line workers; and the consultants, college faculty, and in-service trainers who provide child care practitioners the opportunity to expand their knowledge and skills as well as to achieve recognized credentials. At this level, a somewhat different assortment of skills is needed. Exosystem workers need competencies in such matters as organization, coordination, written and verbal communication, evaluation, goal and objective setting, management, and resource selection. The primary orientation is towards ways of working effectively with other adults who work directly with children.

Macrosystem Skills

The macrosystem, according to Bronfenbrenner, is "the overarching institutional patterns of the culture or subculture, such as the economic, social, educational, legal and political systems" (1977, p. 515). In order to influence the macrosystem, of which other levels are manifestations, persons need the ability to be a change agent; to handle legal matters; to negotiate; to take a leadership role; to understand the dynamics of the political and legislative system; and to write and conduct research which disseminates significant information to a wide audience.

Despite the fact that child care practitioners are needed with skills for influencing all levels of children's environments, the structure of

the child care educational and service system does not facilitate this. In general, more focus is on preparation of workers for the micro- and mesosystem, with less attention given to preparing and encouraging some for action at the exo- and macrosystem. For example, many training programs provide students with excellent clinical skills for effective teaching and other forms of direct interaction with children. However, they may omit provision for developing the indirect skills of other levels. In addition, the low pay scales and lack of mobility in some work settings contribute to burn out and rapid attrition of workers prior to a time they might acquire the skills and interest in exo- and macrosystem work. The result is that there are few persons functioning at the exo- and macrosystem levels—to the great detriment of children. Those persons who, because of previous direct line work, can understand them best, are not in the broader system serving as their advocates.

How then can the professional development of child care practitioners be encouraged so that some of them come, at some point in their careers, to assume the functions of workers in the exo- and macrosystems? Following are some suggestions:

1. Educational programs can provide some instruction in the skills associated with work at these levels, which should help workers be more comfortable with assuming some of these functions.
2. Agencies can apply the job enrichment principle (Sandler, 1974) to its positions. This means that more than one mode of practice is incorporated into one level of work. For example, a teacher in a day care center would not only have a primary responsibility for direct line care of children, but also would have time allotted to carry out some supervisory, administrative or research responsibility. Perhaps this worker could supervise a practicum student, provide orientation for a new staff member, or gather data for a report.
3. Persons already functioning as exo- and macrosystem workers can serve as role models to those at other levels by serving as mentors. They can take a special interest in the careers of their colleagues in micro- and mesosystem work, encouraging them to take new and challenging steps in their jobs and overall personal and professional growth.

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Supervising Learning and Growth in Child Care Settings

BY KATHRYN S. ATMAN

> *. . . The adult with a capacity for true maturity is one who has grown out of childhood without losing childhood's best traits . . . he has incorporated these into a new pattern of simplicity dominated by adult stability, wisdom, knowledge, sensitivity to other people, responsibility, strength and purposiveness. (Stone and Church, 1973, p. 499.)*

The adult who supervises children is faced with both an opportunity and a challenge—the opportunity to facilitate the developmental growth of another human being and the challenge of demonstrating true maturity while doing so. What are some of the dynamics involved in supervising children? What are some of the supervisory skills needed? What are some of the elements of mature behavior and how might those be developed? This paper will explore answers to these questions and will propose a model for identifying competencies needed by those who work with children.

Student teaching and various child care practica have often been identified as "crucible experiences." Armed with the latest in teaching and child care methodology, some of the seemingly most able students flounder when faced with the stark reality of supervising children, particularly older children. What happens? The answer may lie in the manner in which humans communicate with each other. It appears to be not just the **content** of what is being said that matters in supervising children but also the **manner** in which it is said. Sullivan (1953) noted that "the tension of anxiety, when present in the mothering one, induces anxiety in the infant."

The ability to manage the interpersonal dynamics found in any child care setting is critical—not just for maintaining order, but ultimately for enabling learning to occur. Mussen, Conger, and Kagan (1974) have described the qualities of an "authoritative" teacher—one who can manage the learning setting (and himself or herself) for the benefit of the children.

> *. . . Most children appear to do best under well trained, democratic teachers, authoritative but not authoritarian, who know their subject matter, are interested in their pupils, and are not overly concerned with their own problems. Such teachers encourage the student to participate actively in the learning process, while maintaining leadership, direction and, when necessary, reasonable discipline. (Mussen, Conger, and Kagen, 1974, p. 495.)*

It would appear that the dynamics found in any child care setting are best handled by individuals who have achieved a reasonable level of maturity themselves and are thus able to promote maturity in others.

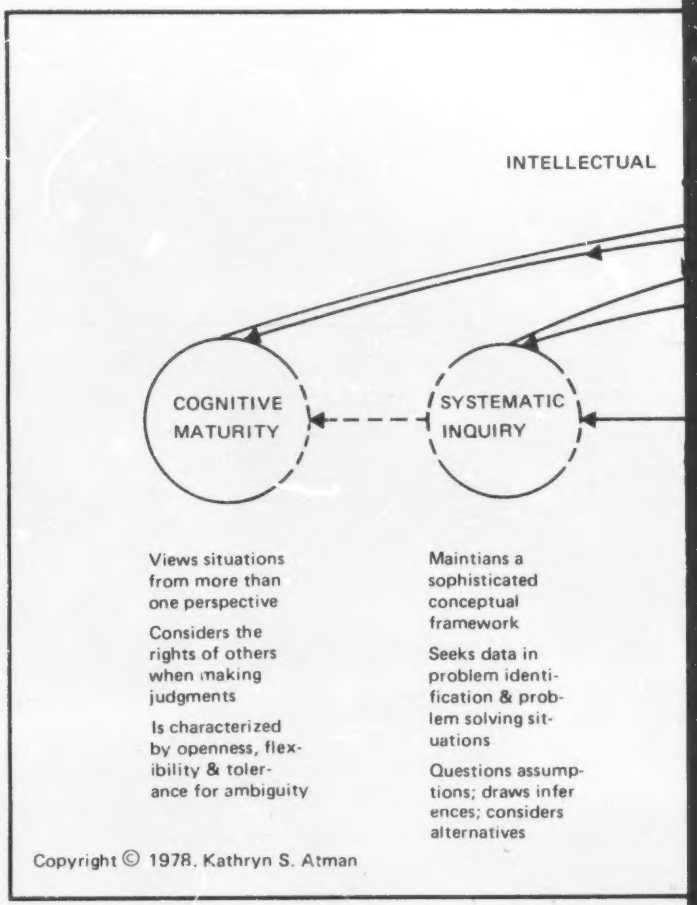
Kathryn S. Atman, Ph.D.: Associate Professor, School of Education, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

What are some specific skills needed by those who work in child care settings? Read (1976) suggests the following guides to speech and action:

> *. . . Your voice is a teaching tool. Use words and a tone of voice which will help the child to feel confident and reassured.*
>
> *. . . The effectiveness of a suggestion or a direction may depend largely on its timing.*
>
> *. . . Give the child the minimum of help in order that he may have the maximum chance to grow in independence, but give help when the child needs it.*
>
> *. . . When limits are necessary they should be clearly defined and consistently maintained.*
>
> *. . . Be alert to the total situation and use the most strategic positions for supervising . . .*
>
> (Read, 1976, p. 99.)

Supervision needs careful consideration if the learning setting is to be one in which destructive anxiety (for both teacher/supervisor and child) is minimized. This implies a sensitive and skillfully planned program for both the students and the teacher, with the teacher, of necessity, exhibiting competence and maturity. (Wagner, 1978.) What are some elements of mature decision-making and how might these be developed?

There are at least two distinct and interactive areas of competence—the intellectual and the interpersonal—both of which are needed by a supervisor who works with children or adults. These two areas can be viewed in a hierarchy with the specific behaviors exemplifying each stage. (See model below.) For example, an intellectually immature individual who is authority-oriented moves toward cognitive maturity by developing systematic inquiry skills. At the same time, an interpersonally immature individual moves from a self-oriented position toward affective maturity as he puts himself in perspective, takes pride in what is done well and exhibits increasing willingness to grow in areas where new knowledge and skills are needed.


INTELLECTUAL
COGNITIVE MATURITY
SYSTEMATIC INQUIRY
Views situations from more than one perspective
Considers the rights of others when making judgments
Is characterized by openness, flexibility & tolerance for ambiguity
Maintians a sophisticated conceptual framework
Seeks data in problem identification & problem solving situations
Questions assumptions; draws inferences; considers alternatives
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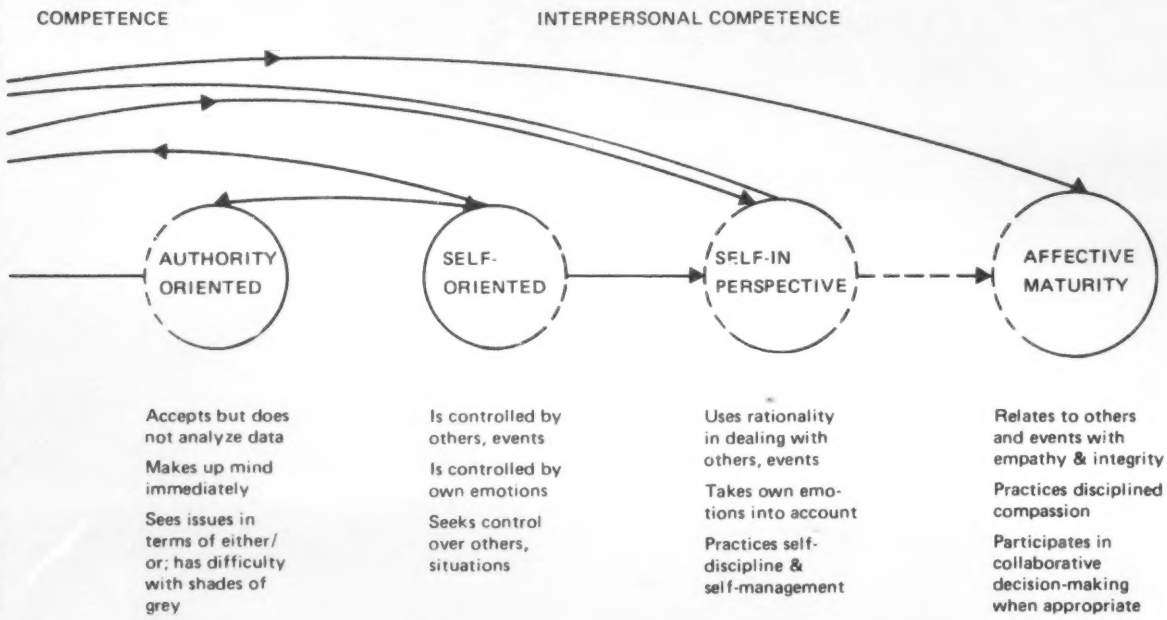
The model suggests a hierarchy in each area of competence as the intellectual and interpersonal levels interact. In addition, the model points to the possibility that a teacher who values empathy and wanting to help others, but who has not developed a strong set of inquiry skills (and who has not examined his own behavior and motives) is quite likely to be manipulated by others. Thus, the teacher may be behaving in an idealistic but naive and therefore, immature manner.

An opportunity and a challenge exist for those who supervise children. Most important,

A DEVELOPMENTAL MODEL FOR PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL GROWTH


COMPETENCE
INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCE
AUTHORITY ORIENTED
SELF-ORIENTED
SELF-IN PERSPECTIVE
AFFECTIVE MATURITY
Accepts but does not analyze data
Makes up mind immediately
Sees issues in terms of either/or; has difficulty with shades of grey
Is controlled by others, events
Is controlled by own emotions
Seeks control over others, situations
Uses rationality in dealing with others, events
Takes own emotions into account
Practices self-discipline & self-management
Relates to others and events with empathy & integrity
Practices disciplined compassion
Participates in collaborative decision-making when appropriate

however, is the willingness of the supervisor/teacher to remain a learner, somewhere on the developmental growth continuum, and to be willing to take risks with others as they seek growth.

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Educational Programs for Early Childhood Personnel

BY DONALD L. PETERS

Introduction

Before the mid-1960's there were few programs that prepared personnel specifically for work in early education and child care settings (Smith, 1974). Where programs did exist they were usually adjuncts to existing degree programs in child development—principally for nursery school teachers—or were in schools of education as part of the preparation of kindergarten teachers. Little was known about the characteristics of quality programs (Howard, 1968). In contrast, the last fifteen years has seen a rapid growth of the services provided for young children with a parallel proliferation of educational programs for training early childhood practitioners. The variety of programs has expanded nearly as rapidly as their numbers.

Types of Educational Programs

For purposes of brief description, current programs may be classified in terms of academic levels and types of sponsorship. Both classifications are related to current employment opportunities.

Academic Levels

Clearly identifiable early childhood personnel education and training programs exist at five academic levels that parallel the vertical hierarchy of current employment possibilities, though the requirements for such positions vary greatly from state to state (Hollick, Peters & Kirchner, 1972).

Non-degree and certificate programs. Such programs, offered by junior colleges, colleges, and some universities, provide academic credit for specialized course work and experiences in child development, early education and child care. Usually the focus of training is on special skill areas. Examples include school aide training programs and house parent training programs.

Two-year degree programs. Such programs lead to an associate degree in child care or related fields. In some states, they qualify a person as a play group supervisor or day care center teacher.

Baccalaureate programs. Such programs constitute the usual four year degree programs of most colleges and universities. They frequently lead to certification or specialist status. Currently they mark the entry level for most professional education fields.

Masters degree programs. Such programs provide specialist training and serve as a source for trainers, supervisors and administrators.

Doctoral degree programs. Doctoral level programs are the primary source of researchers, higher educators and administrators in the child development, early education and child care fields.

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Sponsorship

Early childhood personnel programs are usually available through, or are sponsored by, two main professional fields.

Human development and the helping professions. Although the label may vary from one college or university to the next, there is a cluster of programs that include training and education in child development and child care. The most frequent titles are Child Development and Family Relations, Human Development, Human Resources, Human Ecology and Human Services. Such programs provide training at different levels for those concerned with day care, early education, residential child care, children's protective services, hospital programs for children, family and child services, and child mental health. The orientation of such programs is usually a multidisciplinary team approach that takes a broad developmental perspective toward the child.

Education programs. Such programs are usually provided by departments or colleges of education. They are usually associated with specific education certification programs such as nursery through third grade teacher certification, specialist certification, special education certification, supervisory certification or administrative certification. The central focus is on curriculum and teaching methods, though not exclusively so.

Program Content

While it is true that all training programs for early childhood personnel will have curricula unique to their setting, resources and purposes, there is some agreement as to general content (Peters, Cohen & McNichol, 1974; Peters & Honig, 1974). The relative emphasis will vary with the level of training. Briefly, these generally agreed upon components include:

A liberal education. General education leading to a broad understanding of the world and development of communication skills.

Child development. A knowledge of fundamental principles and landmarks in a child's development within the context of the family and community.

Early childhood services. A knowledge of the goals, background and future directions of the field, including its principal programs and methodologies.

Interpersonal skills. The skills required to be a "change agent" working within a human system of children, parents, co-workers, subordinates, supervisors and community leaders.

Skills for acquiring new knowledge. The skills required to permit continued growth and improvement as a professional, including the use of library resources, reading professional journals, participating in professional meetings, and participating in or conducting research and evaluation.

Specific professional skills. Direct employment related skills required for a prospective position. These would vary depending upon the training level and the orientation of the training program.

Current Trends and Future Prospectives

Within recent years concern has been voiced about the nature of the training and certification for early childhood personnel. Some feel there is little evidence of the efficacy of the educational programs (Goodwin, 1974; Roth, 1977) and doubt the validity or relevance of current certification procedures (Peters, Cohen & McNichol, 1974) based on academic degrees. At the same time there has been increased recognition of the major influence of factors other than formal education, on the development of the child (cf. Jencks, 1972; Bronfenbrenner, 1974, 1974b; Keniston, 1977.)

These concerns have resulted in two major changes in the thrust of early childhood personnel preparation. One has been a movement towards competency-based education and its concomitant, competency-based certification. The other has been a broadening of training to include approaches that go outside the usual classroom and instructional methodologies.

Competency-Based Training and Certification

Competency-based training and certification is based upon the premise that, prior to certification, early childhood personnel should be able to demonstrate those skills and functions that they are expected to demonstrate after certification (Peters et al., 1974) and that such competencies will be important for success in on-the-job performance. Toward this end, occupational analyses for child care personnel have been conducted (cf. Educational Projects Incorporated, 1972; Zaccaria & Hollomon, 1976) and compilations of competencies have been developed (Craig, 1978). These are currently resulting in changes of state certification procedures. Perhaps the most extensive and innovative effort at competency-based credentialling is found in the Child Development Associate program. In this program credentialling is based upon demonstrated competency in the work setting rather than solely upon courses taken, academic credits earned or degrees received. (U.S. Office of Education, 1973.)

Since credentialling is based upon demonstrated skill, the competency-based education movement has brought about changes in educational programs. Course and program requirements are more specific, criteria of success are specified in advance, individual rates of progress are permitted to vary and, in some cases, credit is awarded for past experience if it can be shown that the student has the desired competency.

While the movement is strong, and progress significant, there has been very little assessment of its impact on children or teachers (Roth, 1977). The efficacy of the movement to improve early education and child care remains to be seen.

A Broader Conception of Training

With the current adoption of a broader definition of early childhood education and child care (Peters, 1977) to include health, nutrition and social services as well as developmental programming and education, and with mandated parent involvement and integration of handicapped children, there has been a recognition that early childhood personnel need to be more broadly trained. This has resulted in an increased effort toward interdisciplinary training at all levels. Future personnel will need to take an approach which fully recognizes the whole child within a changing family and community context.

Because of the current growth and variety in education programs for preparing early childhood workers, the future looks bright for the continued influx of new ideas and better prepared personnel.

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Humanized System Approach to Evaluation

BY MARSHA POSTER
AND MARCELLA DeMARCO

As early childhood education reaches out to more families, the quality of preschool education and extended day care is being challenged to improve. The major task, to construct comprehensive methods for evaluating programs and teaching, is not only complex but also of increasing concern to many educational organizations.

For almost two decades numerous documents have been developed to measure and evaluate the effectiveness of teachers. Instruments used for these measurements include rating scales, systematic anecdotal observations and standardized tests. Popham states, "Each of these types of indicators has proved to be far less than satisfactory" (1973). The deficiencies are caused by the different biases of the person who developed the particular instrument, meaning that no single instrument can be adopted to satisfy evaluative criteria. According to Popham, "Each observation system cannot provide for the great diversity of teachers, pupils and instructional intentions" (1973). The results of the evaluation process are too important to be dependent on a single instrument measuring a teacher's success or failure.

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Since a major concern of early childhood educators has always been to develop quality programs for young children, the major task must now be the development of non-threatening and growth-promoting evaluation systems for assessing teacher performance. Successful evaluation methods should:

- Improve instruction and learning climate.
- Establish a communication return among teachers, administrators and the public in a non-threatening atmosphere.
- Promote individual professional and personal growth and development.
- Provide guidelines for promotion or dismissal of individuals.

Humanized Systems Approach

A Humanized Systems Approach to evaluation can be designed to fit each organization and each individual in it. Such an approach to evaluation requires a personal/professional commitment from administrators as well as staff and every person involved has the opportunity for input and feedback.

The process of evaluation, in order to be a positive instrument for change, growth and commitment, should include these kinds of activities:

- Discuss individual and organizational areas of concern.
- Develop task-forces to work on specialized issues.
- Discuss pros and cons of each issue.
- Obtain maximum input and feedback

through interaction among all personnel.

When all actively participate, this comprehensive process leads to self-evaluation through group evaluation. It should be stressed that performance evaluation should not be a one-way street, and it should include criteria for evaluating the administrators. The interchange developed through this process should lead to positive personal/professional change within each staff member. It must be remembered that ". . . An evaluation instrument or plan does not change the teacher's behavior—only the individual teacher can change his/her behavior" (McNally, 1972). An ultimate goal is to develop a unique model for evaluating performance.

A Model for Evaluation

McNally's premise is the underlying goal of what is now understood by the phrase **Humanized Systems Approach to Evaluation.** In this model, criteria for the evaluation process have been evolved through the individual and group processes. The flow chart below shows the steps which can be adapted to meet the individual needs of an organization. This system dissipates the usually threatening connotation of the term "evaluation" by **involving everyone** in the system from the beginning of the process. The aim is to motivate staff to be committed to the improvement of themselves and the organization. When an atmosphere of non-censored communication among staff and between staff and the administrators exists, there is ongoing self-evaluation and group evaluation.

Step I. Assess Needs for Evaluation

Group brainstorming, steering committees or task-force processes may be suitable to assess the needs of individuals and organizations. As much input and feedback as each person is willing to volunteer should be obtained. A list of the needs, as the group defines them, should also be compiled. Examples are:

- Organizational goals and role expectations.
- Individual goals and role expectations.
- Job descriptions.
- Existing evaluation procedure.
- In-service for personal/professional growth and development.
- Self-evaluation.

A checklist of items should be developed for a professional and personal self-evaluation process. Before proceeding to Step II, assess the adequacy of the needs listed and discuss them both formally and informally in staff meetings.

Step II. List Each Item According to Priority

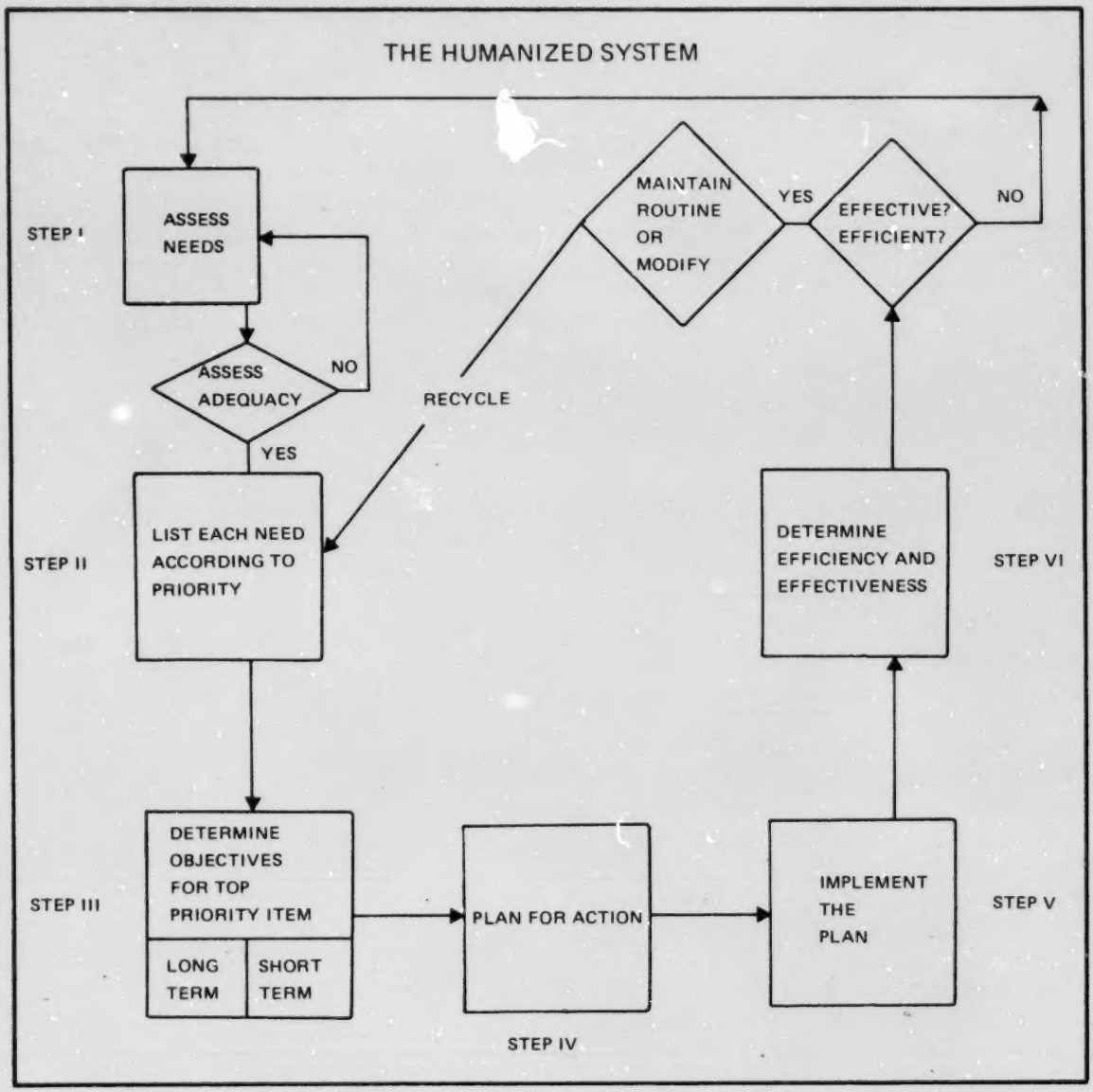
Evolve a priority listing. Scrutinize all items carefully. Determine the short-range or long-range priority of each need. Determine which need is individual and which is organizational. The list should not be cast in concrete; once the priorities are identified, do not be rigid. Allow for subsequent re-evaluation. When the staff as a group and as individuals becomes involved in the project, a chain reaction of enthusiasm should occur which will sustain the momentum of the project.

Step III. Determine Objectives for the Top Priority Item

Once the top priority need is identified, write realistic behavioral objectives for the need. For example, if the top priority is "Job Descriptions", some objectives may be to determine if:

- The job descriptions satisfy organizational goals and role expectations.
- The job descriptions satisfy individual goals and role expectations.
- There is congruency or conflict between the expectations and goals.
- Deletions or additions for individual job descriptions are needed.

Within the organization the momentum which results from the brainstorming and unity of purpose should generate creative and innovative thinking. The system will evolve as a practical vehicle to evaluate staff and organizational performance. Some staff members may want to give greater emphasis to individual priorities while others will want to focus on group priorities.



Step IV. Plan for Action

A task force or a steering committee may work out a proposed **Plan for Action.** All data gathered through Steps I, II, and III is incorporated into a working plan of activities which should involve all personnel in some specific phase. If one uses the priority example from Step III, one plan is to:

- Analyze existing job descriptions.
- Correlate organizational role expectations with individual role expectations.
- Rewrite job descriptions to emphasize congruency between organization and individual role expectations.
- Examine all job descriptions for any omissions and potential overlapping role expectations.

Once the proposal is adopted by the staff as a feasible, realistic plan, it should become operational. A firm decision has to be made. Agree on a time-line for this priority (one week, one month), complete the plan and organize for its implementation. Write checklists

for all staff members, who may sign up voluntarily. Broad categories should be provided. Remember that everyone will not be interested in the same objectives at the same time.

Step V. Implementing the Plan

The staff should be divided into small groups. Each group then writes a job description of the other person's duties as they see them. Read the job descriptions to each other. Discuss the discrepancies in role expectations. Write organizational goals and expectations into job description and discuss. Rewrite or delete items which are incongruent. Add items which may have been omitted that will better define role expectations for the individual and the organization.

Assign a committee to review all of the revised job descriptions to screen for overlapping of role expectations among staff personnel. Bring together persons with duplication of roles. Have these people repeat writing each other's job description. Read and discuss the overlapping areas and arrive at a mutual agreement which will adjust role expectations. By this technique the team approach can enrich the organization. Each person may take the responsibility and act as his own chairperson. There are no wrong actions, only new and creative ones. Share doubts, disappointments and successes with each other.

Step VI. Determine Efficiency and Effectiveness

These questions should be asked of all staff members for input and feedback as a result of this humanized systems approach:

- Are we more satisfied in our job?
- Do we have deeper personal satisfactions?
- Do we communicate with each other more often than before?
- Are our communications more realistic than previous ones?
- Is there less frustration and more congruency in our role expectations for ourselves and the organization?
- In what ways have our changes in behavior affected the children?
- How do these changes satisfy the organizational goals?

If the answers to these questions are positive it is time to move to the next priority item. If there are some negative answers the **Plan for Action** should be modified to correct the weaknesses.

The humanized system moves away from traditional evaluative instruments which are based on rigid role expectations set up outside the organization's own criteria. Everyone has a part in managing, directing and evaluating their individual growth and professional development. This system can be applied to new problems as they arise while promoting the development of leadership and interpersonal relations in an open and non-threatening atmosphere. Individuals can explore, attempt, inquire and make mistakes and learn by them. Evaluation should and can be a positive experience.

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Two Structural Models for Health Care Organizations: The Classical and the Participative

BY WILLIAM L. SUMNER

The structure of any human service organization can be identified as following one of two structural models—the "classical" or the "participative"—each having particular effects upon the motivation and development of the health professionals working in the organization. The discussion that follows relates to the whole spectrum of human service organizations and agencies and includes all categories of human service professionals engaged in the delivery of services and care to clients and patients.

Beginning in the early twentieth century, administrators, following the classical structural model, were particularly concerned with technical, not behavioral, dimensions of division of work: unity of direction, scalar chain, and centralization of authority and responsibility. A brief description of these principles may assist in clarification:

Division of work: Specialization of tasks as determined through work-standards and time-and-motion study.

Unity of direction: Activities having the same objective should be directed by one plan and one manager.

Scalar chain: A graded chain of supervisors throughout all levels of the organization.

Centralization of authority and responsibility: An optimal balance between centralization and decentralization with accompanying appropriate relationships between responsibility and authority of supervisors.

Following the logic of such structural principles, administrators divided tasks into subtasks, which were in turn regrouped into departments. Supervisors were appointed to manage each department or unit, and authority was said to be delegated downward to each departmental or unit supervisor through a chain of command.

If the above principles were subscribed to, along with supervisory maintenance of equitable treatment of employees, fair discipline, appropriate remuneration for task performed, and maintenance of a unity of command between superiors and subordinates, this classic organization model was said to insure order and stability.

As we in human service agencies attempted through the years to structure organizations in a classical mode, it was apparent that a number of aspects associated with that model were inappropriate to the performance of our mission. Following the assumptions inherent in the classical design, our practitioners would be viewed simply as technicians performing specific tasks assigned within a very formalistic structure. We have come to believe that the members of our organizational systems are capable of being creative, dedicated, resourceful, desirous of engaging in shared decision-making, and committed to purpose as well as profession, and it was necessary to

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develop a more modern organizational model. To address these specialized needs, structures were designed to build effective professional human service work groups and teams devoted to the accomplishment of high performance goals. This adaptation of structural design to better utilize human potential encouraged supervisors at all levels to adopt decentralized, shared decision-making and goal-setting activities. This organizational model came to be known as "participative" or "collegial."

Present in our modern structural model must be mechanisms to interpret the needs and desires of all within the organization, as well as provisions for input from members external to the organization but still within the same environment. This concern can aid in decision-making at the level of governing boards, as well as assist individuals at the patient or client level.

The classical design initially discussed was based upon the assumption that the most effective organizational structure is one that is characterized by highly specialized tasks, homogeneous units, narrow spans of control and relatively centralized authority. The modern or participatory design has been described as one that has relatively despecialized or multi-specialized activities. In addition, as noted, it is thought that a more decentralized authority is beneficial. The participative or collegial design should promote more effective delivery of care, it is argued, since the structure appears to be more in harmony with the motivation and needs of the modern day professional worker.

To identify an organization with respect to the two structural models discussed, the following checklist may be helpful. Scoring of checkmarks in Table I indicate a classical structure and in Table II, a participative structure.

TABLE I

In my organization:

_____ Subordinates do not feel free to discuss job problems with superiors

_____ Superiors do not solicit subordinate opinions and ideas

_____ Fear and sanctions are used to motivate employees

_____ Unfavorable attitudes toward the organization are shown among employees

_____ Most communication flows downward through the organization

_____ Employees are suspicious of communications from above

_____ Subordinates have little to say about the setting of departmental goals and methods

_____ Primary decisions are made at the top of the organization

_____ Goals and objectives are set, without subordinate input, at the top of the organization

_____ Controls are applied primarily from the top of the organization

_____ There is little commitment from individual employees to perform goals set at the top of the organization

TABLE II

In my organization:

_____ Subordinates feel free to discuss job problems with their superiors

_____ Superiors request input of subordinates for decision-making

_____ A variety of methods are used to encourage employee participation

(Table II *continued from page 20*)

Stress in Work with Children

BY MARTHA A. MATTINGLY

Current concern with the quality of child care programs and the development of professionals in the field has focused on the problem of stress in working with children. Many skilled, effective, and dedicated workers are either lost to the field or find their work increasingly difficult because of the physical and psychological hardships. Some even suffer burn-out, which has been defined as a state of exhaustion due to excessive demands on energy, strength, or resources (Freudenberger, 1975).

As our understanding of children's development and their program requirements becomes more sophisticated, it seems urgent that the profession address the issue of stress and burn-out in order to facilitate the caregivers' growth and effectiveness (Mattingly, 1977.) This paper will describe sources of stress and components of the burn-out experience, and suggest some ways in which workers can enhance their resistance to it.

Sources of Stress

Some sources of stress arise from lack of training, poor staff selection procedures, inadequate funding, and ineffective administration. These factors have an important impact on the quality of service to children and the quality of the caregivers' working lives. However, these problems are familiar and frequently discussed. Of greater concern here are the sources of stress which are inherent to the job and will remain even when appropriate agency organization and resources exist.

The child care provider is most often dedicated and deeply committed to children. This dedication inevitably results in a stress-producing conflict between the worker's wish to give and the realization that he frequently cannot give enough. Many children have needs greater than the worker's resources can satisfy, and his personal life often does not provide adequate refueling.

The child care provider functions in a "pressure cooker," needing to rapidly process large amounts of diverse information, including verbal and non-verbal behavior, individual children's characteristics and situations, the environment, and the plan for the day. In addition, the child care professional works in the open, viewed by children, parents, coworkers and supervisors. There are few places to hide misjudgments, moments of temper, and bad days.

The ability to be empathic is essential to child care work. The caregiver needs to understand the child's point of view within an accurate developmental perspective. At the same time he must remain fully adult, not identifying with the child or allowing the child to become an inappropriate participant in his own psychological conflicts. He also frequently has negative feelings such as anger and poten-

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tial loss of control. These are frightening, particularly to young workers, and inconsistent with the image of a helper of children. The child care giver is also exposed to physical and psychological insult. No matter how sophisticated the worker, being bitten, kicked in the shins, sworn at or insulted are assaults on self-esteem.

Little community support is available to sustain the professional identity of the child care giver. Family, friends, neighbors, and community groups frequently perceive him as a good and noble person who likes children. Since his work is seen as "playing" or babysitting, there is little appreciation for the complexity and stresses of caregiving. The worker himself must struggle with "Who am I?" and "What do I do?"

Burn-out

Personal reactions to stress are individual. Although there is no simple list of symptoms and behaviors which indicate burn-out, there are some signs which seem to appear frequently. A particular worker may experience only part of what is described here.

The experience of burning-out may begin with vague personal distress. Dissatisfaction with work and fatigue are common. As fatigue becomes more serious the worker may give up recreational activities and social contacts which were previously rewarding and may have difficulty recovering from the intense sensory stimulation so common in a children's setting. He may also feel himself becoming rigid, less empathic, and less able to cope effectively with difficult or new situations.

Co-workers and supervisors are not often helpful in clarifying these experiences for the burning-out worker. He probably feels very much alone in this experience and assumes he is unfit for the work he has chosen. There is then a severe fracture of his professional identity. For some workers the distinction between work and personal life may begin to blur. Off-duty work and special tasks may be undertaken frequently, a particular hazard for young workers. With excessive exposure to stress, exhaustion sets in and workers may become less flexible and innovative. A stereotyped and dehumanized vocabulary may be applied to clients and the agency (Maslach & Pines, 1977) and workers may feel an increased need for specific regulations and schedule to guide them (Reed, 1975).

Workers who are burning-out may substantially misjudge their abilities and duties. Some may overestimate themselves and assume a superior attitude while others may experience painful self-doubt and underestimate their competence. Increased supervision primarily designed to elicit approval and reassurance may be sought.

Exposure to excessive stress is also likely to be manifested in physical symptoms. Health problems including both illness and accidental injury may occur or intensify during the burn-out process. A very broad range of symptoms may be associated with exposure to stress and many workers report a sharp increase in doctor visits. Increased absences from work are also thought to be related to work stress.

When several members of a work group are burning-out simultaneously the system of staff support may collapse. Staff meetings may become stereotyped, repetitive, too brief or frequently cancelled. Informal and social staff interaction may be filled with urgent, compulsive, and repetitious anecdotes and displays of feeling. These collusive relationships may provide short-term relief but prevent effective resolution of issues. It is particularly harmful when group collusion masks a genuine and helpful concern for fellow workers.

Stress Resistance and Recovery

If skilled and experienced child care givers are to grow in number, then each worker, supervisor, and agency should engage in a process of evaluation and planning to facilitate resistance to and recovery from stress. A few suggestions can be made here.

1. Each worker can try to achieve a differentiated understanding of himself and

his work. Personal motives, needs, skills, and deficits can be identified. It is useful to identify particular knowledge and/or skills which are needed and make specific, realistic plans to acquire them.

2. Each worker can review and consider changes in his personal schedule and activities with a view to increasing his ability to manage stress. Rewarding personal activities, an effective transition time from work to personal life, regular physical exercise, effective relaxation techniques, and eating and sleeping habits should be given attention.
3. Each worker can commit himself to help his fellow professionals manage stress effectively. Each should be available to others and show willingness, confidentiality and concern. Knowledge and skills can be shared. Co-workers can be allowed to take vacations, sick and comp time with a gracious attitude so that they do not feel guilty for leaving fellow workers or the children.
4. Workers, supervisors and agencies can review policies and procedures to help in the management of stress. Clear and accurate job descriptions and personnel policies remove some ambiguity and help in effective functioning. Appropriate scheduling, supervision, in-service programs, and continuing education assist workers greatly. A creative endeavor in which resources available to a day care agency were used specifically to assist staff in stress management is described by Hatch (1977).

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The Impact of Budgetary Concerns on Staff Morale and Development

BY WILLIAM F. HIGNETT

Do federal and state child care agencies produce poor child care? It is inconceivable to think of child care planning that would deliberately set out to provide poor care for children. On the contrary, we hear proposals describing a comprehensive program of child care that must be predominantly child-centered, that is geared to meet the child's needs: social, emotional, physical, cultural and nutritional. They might state, because a child's earliest experiences affect his future beliefs, behavior and emotional stability, it is necessary to provide children with as many enriching experiences as possible if they are to function effectively within their environment!! Along with the energy invested in planning, there are state and federal regulations covering safety, space and personnel issues. Why then do we still have many child care programs providing questionable care? In this paper I will discuss one important aspect of all programs that has a direct impact on the service provided – budgetary concerns. Statistics and case histories of child care programs provide information from which a number of conclusions can be drawn.

There are several elements of a budget for a child care program that strongly affect the quality of the care. The largest portion of the budget for any service-oriented program goes toward salaries. However, in spite of the seeming size of this item, actual salaries paid to employees is quite low. In a study of salaries completed by the National Health and Welfare Association, it was found that the average wage for a child care worker is $7,851. (Shyne, 1977.) Both the starting salaries and pay raises for most child care workers are lower than those for most production workers. In Pennsylvania, for instance, the guidelines for salary increments in the Title IV A and Title XX programs have been set at 5 to 5½% increase per year. It is not difficult to see the plight of a child care or social service employee in these programs when the overall economy has an inflationary rate of 8 to 16%. In five years a person holding one of these positions has about 25% less buying power than he did when hired. Social services, day care programs and child care programs have been considered "charitable work" in this country, which influences thinking when program budgets are developed. Another argument from individuals responsible for setting salary guidelines is that since most child care programs have low salaries, an employee would not benefit by moving from one to another. Sad to say, this is quite accurate. Another reason given for holding to these guidelines is that the labor market is flooded with people looking for child care positions, again, a fairly accurate statement. The market has been flooded because, until recently, few standards have been set for caregivers.

But the question remains, how do low salaries affect the quality of care? The personnel

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records of a government-funded program provide information that may help in understanding the effects of this approach to program budgets. This program has been in operation approximately seven years with an employee roster of 38 persons. Sixty employees have left the program since the original hiring, with an average stay of two years, five months. Only 14 of the 60 took positions in other social service programs. It should be of grave concern to any organization this size to have a termination rate of one employee every five weeks. If new staff receive training, the cost is high, and if they receive no training, caregivers cannot effectively carry out the objectives of the agency. Many times new staff are expected to "fit" into the system by themselves, usually creating turmoil. The condition that creates this high turnover should be a concern not only of the organization, but also of those government agencies setting the original child care goals.

In another publicly funded program, now closed, monetary decisions often caused abrupt termination of staff and inadequate caring for the children or required moving children from one type of facility to another, with new staff and a different environment. Children experience these changes as losses evidenced by maladaptive behavior which puts more strain on an already strained system.

Interruptions in cash flow compound other troubles an organization may have, and can do more to demoralize a staff than any other single factor. Several years ago the State of Pennsylvania began the fiscal year without an approved budget, delaying appropriations for all programs. Many weeks passed before the budget was finalized and then the backlog of invoices caused further delay. Local child care programs were without state funds for a period of three to four months. During this time, businesses waited for payment, rents were delayed, and most important, employees were not paid at all or only paid portions of their regular salary. Nothing can be more demoralizing for an entire staff.

The concentration and personal investment required for providing quality care to children is virtually impossible when the worker must be concerned about his own security. The workers experience stress and low self esteem which then leaves less energy for creativity and initiative. Unfortunately, many budgetary decisions are made by individuals who are far from the site of service and who give little thought to the consequences of their decisions.

The problems discussed in this paper are by no means the limit of the budgetary concerns which affect the delivery of care for children. Others, such as quality of space, equipment or food, are also important. In sum, if child care programs are to achieve the high standards expected of them, budgetary adjustments must be made to bring salaries more in line with the greater portion of the work force, and there must be safeguards built in to assure a smooth flow of funds to these programs.

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(Tribute to Lilian Katz *continued from page 1*)

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(Table II *continued on page 27*)

_____ Employee attitudes toward the organization and its goals are favorable

_____ Communication flows freely upward, downward and laterally

_____ Employees feel information communicated is accurate and undistorted

_____ Subordinates have an opportunity to give input to the setting of departmental goals and methods

_____ Decision-making processes occur at all levels within the organization

_____ Employees participate as individuals and groups in the goal-setting process of the organization

_____ Control is exercised at a variety of levels within the organization, including self-control mechanisms

_____ Performance goals are set at all levels in the organization and involve commitment of all employees to these goals

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